"Radiation in the Solar System: its Effect on Temperature and its Pressure on Small Bodies." By J. H. Poynting, Sc.D., F.R.S., Professor of Physics in the University of Birmingham. Received June 16,—Read June 18, 1903.

(Abstract.)

Part I.—*Temperature.*

We can calculate an upper limit to the temperatures of fully absorbing or "black" surfaces receiving their heat from the sun, and on certain assumptions we can find the temperatures of planetary surfaces, if we accept the fourth power law of radiation, since we know approximately the solar constant, that is, the rate of reception of heat from the sun, and the radiation constant, that is, the energy radiated at 1° abs. by a fully radiating surface.*

The effective temperature of space calculated from the very uncertain data at our command is of the order 10° abs. Bodies in interplanetary space and at a much higher temperature may, therefore, be regarded as being practically in a zero temperature enclosure except in so far as they receive heat from the sun.

The first case considered is that of an ideal earth, more or less resembling the real earth, and it is shown that the temperature of its surface is, on the average, 325°, 302°, or 290° abs. according as we take for the solar constant Ångström's value 4 cal./min., Langley's value 3 cal./min. or a value deduced from Rosetti's work 2·5 cal./min. The lowest value found, 290° abs., is very near the average temperature of the earth's surface, which may be taken as 289° abs. As the earth's effective temperature must, if anything, be below this, and cannot differ much from that of the ideal planet, Rosetti's value for the solar constant, 2·5 cal./min. or $0{\cdot}175 \times 10^7$ ergs/sec., is probably nearest to the true value and is therefore used in the following calculations.

The preceding calculations may be turned the other way. It is shown that, on certain assumptions, the effective temperature of the sun is 21·5 times that of the ideal earth. If we consider that the real earth with a temperature 289° abs. sufficiently resembles the ideal, we get a solar temperature $21{\cdot}5 \times 289 = 6200°$ abs.

The upper limit to the temperature of the surface of the moon is determined and is shown to be 412° abs. when no heat is conducted inwards. But Langley finds that the actual temperature is not much

* W. Wien ('Cong. Int. de Physique,' 1900, vol. 2, p. 30) has pointed out that Stefan's law enables us to calculate the temperatures of celestial bodies which receive their light from the sun, by equating the energy which they radiate to the energy which they receive from the sun, and remarks that the temperature of Neptune should be below −200° C.

above the freezing point on the average. This leads us to the conclusion that it is not higher than four-fifths the highest possible value, the reduction being due to inward conduction.

The temperature of a small body, dimensions of the order of 1 cm. or less, but still so large that it absorbs radiation, is shown to be nearly uniform, and at the distance of the earth from the sun about 300° abs.

Under otherwise similar conditions temperatures must vary inversely as the square root of the distance from the sun. Thus Mars, if an earth-like planet, has a temperature nowhere above 253° abs., and if a moon-like planet, the upper limit to the temperature of the hottest part is about 270°.

PART II.—*Radiation Pressure.*

The ratio of radiation pressure due to sunlight to solar gravitation increases, as is well known, as the receiving body diminishes in size. But if the radiating body also diminishes in size this ratio increases. It is shown that if two equal and fully radiating spheres of the temperature and density of the sun are radiating to each other in a zero enclosure, at a distance large compared with their radii, then the radiation push balances the gravitation pull when the radius of each is 335 metres. If the temperature of two equal bodies is 300° abs. and their density 1, the radius for a balance between the two forces is 19·62 cm. If the density is that of the earth, 5·5, the balance occurs with a radius 3·4 cm. If the temperatures of the two are different, the radiation pressures are different and it is possible to imagine two bodies, which will both tend to move in the same direction, one chasing the other, under the combined action of radiation and gravitation.

The effect of Döppler's principle will be to limit the velocity attained in such a chase. The Döppler effect on a moving radiator is then examined and an expression is found for the increase in pressure on the front, and the decrease in pressure on the back of a radiating sphere of uniform temperature moving through a medium at rest. It is proportional to the velocity at a given temperature. The equation to the orbit of such a body moving round the sun is found, and it is shown that meteoric dust within the orbit of the earth will be swept into the sun in a time comparable with historical times, while bodies of the order of 1 cm. radius will be drawn in in a time comparable with geological periods.